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DURING TRANSIENT OPERATIONS USING AN ENGINE  
EXHAUST PARTICLE SIZER***

J. Wang, J. Storey, N. Domingo, S. Huff, J. Thomas, and B. West

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**Environmental Sciences Department/Atmospheric Sciences Division**

**Brookhaven National Laboratory**

P.O. Box 5000  
Upton, NY 11973-5000  
[www.bnl.gov](http://www.bnl.gov)

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# Studies of diesel engine particle emissions during transient operations using an Engine Exhaust Particle Sizer

Jian Wang<sup>1\*</sup>, John Storey<sup>2</sup>, Norberto Domingo<sup>2</sup>,  
Shean Huff<sup>2</sup>, John Thomas<sup>2</sup>, and Brian West<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Brookhaven National Laboratory, Upton, NY 11973

<sup>2</sup>Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, TN 37831

## Abstract

Diesel engine particle emissions during transient operations, including emissions during FTP transient cycles and during active regenerations of a NO<sub>x</sub> adsorber, were studied using a fast Engine Emission Particle Sizer (EEPS). For both fuels tested, a No. 2 certification diesel and a low sulfur diesel (BP-15), high particle concentrations and emission rates were mainly associated with heavy engine acceleration, high speed, and high torque during transient cycles. Averaged over the FTP transient cycle, the particle number concentration during tests with the certification fuel was 1.2e8/cm<sup>3</sup>, about four times the particle number concentration observed during tests using the BP-15 fuel. The effect of each engine parameter on particle emissions was studied. During tests using BP-15, the particle number emission rate was mainly controlled by the engine speed and torque, whereas for Certification fuel, the engine acceleration also had a strong effect on number emission rates. The effects of active regenerations of a diesel NO<sub>x</sub> adsorber on particle emissions were also characterized for two catalyst regeneration strategies: Delayed Extended Main (DEM) and Post 80 injection (Post80). Particle volume concentrations observed during DEM regenerations were much higher than those during Post80 regenerations, and the minimum air to fuel ratio achieved during the regenerations had little effect on particle emission for both strategies. This study provides valuable information for developing strategies that minimize the particle formation during active regenerations of NO<sub>x</sub> adsorbers.

Keywords: Diesel engine; Transient operation; NO<sub>x</sub> adsorber; Active regeneration; EEPS

\* Corresponding author. Email: jian@bnl.gov

## 1 INTRODUCTION

2 Epidemiological and laboratory studies have linked exposure to particles less than  
3 2.5 microns in diameter with adverse health effects (Dockery et al. 1993; Pope et al.  
4 1995; Wichmann et al., 2000). Emission from internal combustion vehicles is one of the  
5 major sources of sub 2.5 micron particles ( $PM_{2.5}$ ) and it is well-known that diesel engines  
6 emit more particle (also called particulate matter, or PM) mass per unit mass of fuel  
7 consumed than normal gasoline vehicles. Because of their superior fuel economy, diesel  
8 vehicles represent a growing portion of vehicle market world wide. Over 85 percent of  
9 the total value of goods in the U.S. is transported by heavy-duty diesel trucks. In Europe,  
10 diesel-powered passenger cars currently make up about half of the market share, and are  
11 likely to increase in the near future. Future regulations in the U.S. and Europe will  
12 reduce diesel PM emissions ten-fold or greater, but it is still important to understand the  
13 PM emissions of existing diesel engines and vehicles and their impact on ambient air  
14 quality. It is also important to understand the nature of the PM emissions from advanced  
15 diesel engines that will likely use diesel particle filters (DPFs) for control.

16 A number of recent studies have examined the physical characteristics of particle  
17 emissions from diesel engines and vehicles. These studies were mostly carried out under  
18 steady state engine operation conditions (Holmén and Ayala 2002; Kittelson et al. 1998),  
19 and time-resolved studies of diesel particle emissions during transient engine operations  
20 were rare (Lehmann et al. 2003; Holmén and Qu 2004; Clark et al. 2005). In the real  
21 world, vehicles are operated at a variety of conditions. Diesel engine emissions under  
22 transient operating conditions, such as acceleration, deceleration, and change of engine  
23 torque, need to be understood for developing realistic particle emission models.

1 Knowledge of diesel engine emissions under the full spectrum of operating conditions is  
2 also required for the development and simulation of DPFs, which are becoming necessary  
3 for future diesel vehicles to meet the new, stricter PM emission regulations.

4 One of the main reasons for the scarcity of diesel particle emission and size  
5 distribution data under transient operating conditions is the lack of real-time instruments  
6 that are capable of capturing fast changing particle size distributions. Two commercially  
7 available instruments, the Electrical Low Pressure Impactor (ELPI, Dekati) and the  
8 Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (SMPS, TSI Inc), have been widely used to measure  
9 particle emissions of diesel engines and vehicles. The advantage of the SMPS is its  
10 capability of measuring submicron particles with high size resolutions. However, the  
11 SMPS measures one particle size at a time. To obtain an entire size distribution, one  
12 needs to scan the classifying voltage of the SMPS through a wide dynamic range (Wang  
13 and Flagan 1990). As a result, the time resolution of the SMPS is limited to 60 seconds  
14 or longer, and thus it cannot capture fast variations of particle size distribution during  
15 transient engine operation. Wang et al. (2002) developed a fast response mixing type  
16 CPC. When used as the detector in a SMPS system, the Mixing CPC allows size  
17 distribution measurements in 1 second. Using a fast SMPS system based on the Mixing  
18 CPC, Shah and Cocker (2005) recently reported measurement of transient diesel vehicle  
19 emission at a speed of 0.4 HZ. The ELPI measures particle size distributions on the order  
20 of seconds by detecting particles of different aerodynamic sizes simultaneously.  
21 However, the size resolution of the ELPI is limited (12 stages ranging from 30-10000  
22 nm). While the SMPS and ELPI are based on different size measurement principles,  
23 previous measurements during steady state operations have shown that the two

1 instruments have reasonable agreement in their overlapping size range (Ahlvik et al.  
2 1998; Shi and Harrison 1999).

3 In this study, a new commercially available instrument, the Engine Exhaust  
4 Particle Sizer (EEPS), was tested for measuring diesel engine emissions during transient  
5 operation. The EEPS has a good size resolution between 5.6 -560 nm, and is capable of  
6 sampling at frequencies up to 10 HZ. Diesel emissions during two types of transient  
7 operations were studied. First, particle emissions from a medium-duty engine during the  
8 EPA Federal Test Procedure: Heavy-Duty Transient Test (HDTT) cycles were  
9 characterized with two diesel fuels. Variations of particle size distributions during the  
10 HDTT cycle are presented, and the effects of two fuels on exhaust particle size  
11 distribution during transient operations are discussed. We also present an approach to  
12 analyze the effect of individual engine parameters on particle emissions. Implications for  
13 future strategies to meet pending emissions regulation are discussed. In addition to  
14 transient test cycles, transient particle emissions during active regenerations were  
15 characterized for a light-duty diesel engine equipped with a NO<sub>x</sub> adsorber catalyst..  
16 Results of two different active regeneration strategies and the effect of minimum air to  
17 fuel ratios on particle emissions are presented.

## 18 19 **DIESEL ENGINE PARTICLE EMISSIONS DURING THE FEDERAL TEST** 20 **PROCEDURE (FTP) HEAVY-DUTY TRANSIENT CYCLES**

### 21 ***EXPERIMENT SETUP AND INSTRUMENTATION***

22 The particle size distributions of engine emissions were measured by a new  
23 Engine Exhaust Particle Sizer (EEPS) manufactured by TSI Inc (Johnson et al., 2003 and

Johnson et al., 2004). The EEPS is based on the development of the electric aerosol spectrometer (Mirme 1994; Mirme and Tamm 1991; Tammet et al. 2002). Using multiple electrometers as detectors, the EEPS measures particle size from 5.6 to 560 nanometer with a sizing resolution of 16 channels per decade, i.e. total 32 channels. The EEPS reads size distribution at a frequency of 10 HZ, which makes it an ideal instrument to measure diesel engine particle emissions during transient conditions. An impactor is installed at the inlet of the EEPS to remove particles with aerodynamic diameter larger than 1  $\mu\text{m}$ . Particles passing through the impactor are then charged in a unipolar diffusion charger to a predictable charge state. The charged particles subsequently enter an annular space between two cylinders. Under the electrical field between the two cylinders, particles with different mobilities are collected by a series of 22 electrometer rings. The currents from the 22 electrometers do not directly relate to specific particle size channels. Particles that enter the EEPS at the same time are detected at different times, on different electrometers, depending upon size and charge (Johnson et al., 2003). In addition, multiple charging will cause particles of the same size to be detected at different electrometers. A data inversion algorithm accounts for these factors and generates size distribution curves, which are given in 32 size bins that are equally spaced on a logarithmic scale.

A 1999 model year, 5.9L medium-duty diesel engine specially equipped with exhaust gas recirculation (EGR) was used in this study. These engines are most often found in heavy-duty pickup trucks, and are certified for engine emissions like heavy-duty engines, as opposed to having their vehicle emissions certified. The fueling and turbocharger on this engine were modified to allow it to meet the 2004 emissions

standards for NO<sub>x</sub>. Although this engine was not in a commercial product, its emissions are representative of 2003 model year and later engines found in heavy-duty pickup trucks. A full description of the engine and dynamometer research cell appeared earlier (Kass et al., 2003). A Dyne Systems controller and data acquisition system was used to record data. Engine temperatures, engine speed, torque, power, fuel flow, air flow, and gaseous emissions (CO, CO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, and total hydrocarbons (HC)) were recorded. Particle emissions were characterized for two diesel fuels, and the fuel lines were purged between fuels. Raw exhaust was sampled through a 2 m heated (190 °C), stainless steel line to the micro-dilution tunnel. The ejector type dilutor (Kittelson et al. 1998) consisted of an inlet nozzle, an annular nozzle and a mixing chamber. Inside the dilutor, particle-free compressed dilution air was mixed with aerosol sample. A pressure drop at the ejector nozzle ensures homogeneous mixing and a constant dilution ratio. The particle dilution flow was passed through filters and activated carbon to remove particles and hydrocarbons. The two fuels tested were a No. 2 diesel certification fuel with 350 ppm sulfur (Conoco Phillips), and an ultralow sulfur (< 15 ppm sulfur) research fuel prepared by BP Amoco (West et al., 2004, referred [to](#) as BP-15 afterwards). For tests with BP-15, only one ejector dilutor was used, and measurements were carried out under different dilution ratios to study the effect of dilution ratio on particle emissions. Particle emissions were significantly higher when Certification Fuel was used, and a second ejector dilutor was added in series to reduce the final particle concentrations within the measurement range of the EEPS.

The Federal Test Procedure (FTP) heavy-duty transient test cycle was used in our emission tests (will be referred as FTP transient cycle afterwards). The FTP transient

1 cycle was designed by the U.S. EPA for emission testing of heavy-duty on-road engines  
2 in the United States. The FTP transient cycle was developed to take into account the duty  
3 cycles of a variety of heavy-duty trucks and buses in American cities, including traffic in  
4 and around the cities, on roads, and on freeways. The FTP cycle has a running time of  
5 1200 seconds, and consists of four phases: the first is "New York Non Freeway" (NYNF)  
6 phase typical of light urban traffic with frequent stops and starts, the second is "Los  
7 Angeles Non Freeway" (LANF) phase typical of crowded urban traffic with few stops,  
8 the third is a "Los Angeles Freeway" (LAFY) phase simulating freeway traffic in Los  
9 Angeles, and the fourth phase repeats the first NYNF phase. The average load factor of  
10 the FTP cycle is about 20-25% of the maximum engine horsepower available at a given  
11 engine speed. The time series of engine speed and torque are given in Figure 1. During  
12 this study, the engine was warmed up prior to each test.

## 14 ***RESULTS AND DISCUSSION (FTP TRANSIENT CYCLE TESTS)***

### 15 **Test to test variation.**

16 The engine speed, torque, and total particle number concentrations during tests of  
17 two diesel fuels are shown in Figure 1. For BP-15, five tests with dilution ratio ranging  
18 from 18 to 37 were conducted. Only one set of test data is available for Certification  
19 Fuel. The total particle number concentration was calculated by integrating particle size  
20 distributions measured by the EEPS, and was corrected for dilution (i.e., number of  
21 particles per unit volume of exhaust at STP). For better statistics, we averaged the 10 Hz  
22 EEPS measurements into 1 second intervals, which is sufficiently fast to capture transient  
23 behavior of the engine emission during the FTP cycles. The measured particle size of



diesel emissions can be affected strongly by dilution ratio (Khalek and Kittelson, 2000; Suresh and Johnson, 2001). Low dilution ratio could result in nucleation and condensation of semi-volatile organic compounds and sulfuric acid. Since the BP-15 fuel has very low sulfur content, it is unlikely to form sulfuric acid particles. Figure 1(c) shows the time series of total particle number concentration with dilution ratio ranging from 18 to 37 for tests using BP-15 fuel. The total particle concentrations are nearly identical for different tests, suggesting when BP-15 is used, the effect of dilution ratio on particle number concentration was small over the range tested. For the test using Certification fuel, two dilutors were used in series to reduce the particle concentration within the measurement range of the EEPS. The dilution ratios for the first and second dilutor are 28.4 and 8.5, respectively. Due to the high dilution ratio of the first dilutor, the temperature of the air sample exiting the first dilutor was close to the temperature of the dilution flow. Therefore, we do not expect any change of particle size distributions within the second dilutor. It is worth noting that the dilution ratios used in this study are substantially smaller than those under typical atmospheric conditions. For both fuels, high particle number concentrations were mainly associated with heavy acceleration, high engine speed, and high engine torque. The highest particle number concentrations were  $1.7 \times 10^8/\text{cm}^3$  and  $8 \times 10^8/\text{cm}^3$  for BP-15 and Certification Fuel, respectively. Averaged over the entire transient cycle, the number of particles emitted per unit diesel consumed during the test using Certification Fuel was  $4.7 \times 10^{12}/\text{g-fuel}$ , about three times the average emission rate during BP-15 tests, for the diesel engine tested.

## Particle size distribution and emission rate

To analyze engine emissions under different driving characteristics, we divided the FTP transient cycle into four operation modes: acceleration, deceleration, cruise, and idle. The time period of each operation mode is shown in Figure 2. Particle size distributions were averaged over the time period of each operation mode, and the results for both fuels are given in Figure 3. The averaged particle size distributions consist of two particle modes: an ultrafine mode with diameter near 10nm and an Aitken mode with diameter around 60 nm. The averaged size distributions were fitted into two-mode lognormal size distributions:

$$n(D_p) = \sum_{i=1}^2 \frac{N_i}{\sqrt{2\pi} D_p \ln(\sigma_i)} \exp \left[ -\frac{(\ln D_p - \ln D_{p,i})^2}{2 \ln^2 \sigma_i} \right] \quad (1)$$

where  $N_i$ ,  $D_{p,i}$ , and  $\sigma_i$  are the number concentration, geometric mean diameter, and dispersion of each particle mode. The fitted parameters for size distribution averaged over each operation mode are listed in Table 1. For both fuels, particles smaller than 100 nm in diameter made up the majority of the particle population during each operation mode. Except during engine idling, Aitken mode particles dominated the particle total number concentration. For both fuels, the particle number concentrations during "acceleration" and "cruise" periods were significantly higher than those during "deceleration" and "engine idling". The Aitken mode diameter of particle size distribution remained relatively constant among different operation modes when BP-15 was used, whereas for Certification Fuel, the Aitken mode diameter varied from 52 nm to 78 nm. The minimum Aitken mode diameter was observed during "engine idling" and the maximum Aitken mode diameter was observed during "acceleration". While based

1 on limited tests on a single engine, the above results indicate diesel fuel has strong effects  
2 on particle emissions, both in concentration and size, during transient operations. While  
3 by no means universal, the significant difference in Aitken mode diameter between the  
4 two fuels has broad implications for 2006 and beyond, when all on-road diesel fuel must  
5 contain  $< 15$  ppm sulfur. The substitution of the ultra-low sulfur fuel could decrease PM  
6 mass emissions, and the changes in particle size could also affect the performance of  
7 emissions control devices.

8       Figure 4 and 5 show the temporal variations of engine parameters and particle  
9 size distributions during two typical acceleration and cruise periods. High particle  
10 number concentrations were mainly associated with heavy acceleration, high engine  
11 speed and torque, as is apparent by comparing the peaks in particle number concentration  
12 and engine speed and torque traces. Similar to results shown in Figure 3, the ultrafine  
13 mode particles dominated the total particle number concentration during the engine  
14 idling. As the engine accelerated from the idle speed (850 rpm, Figure 4 and 5), the  
15 ultrafine particle mode declined. At the same time, the concentration of Aitken mode  
16 particles increased drastically, which led to significant increase in total particle number  
17 concentration. In addition to increased particle number concentrations, Aitken mode  
18 diameter of size distribution also varied as the engine accelerated from the idling speed.  
19 For tests using Certification Fuel, the Aitken mode diameter first increased to 120 nm,  
20 then decreased to the pre-acceleration size of around 60nm, whereas for tests of BP-15,  
21 only a moderate increase in mode diameter to 70 nm was observed, followed by a faster  
22 decrease back to 50 nm (Figure 4e and 5e). Similar increases in Aitken mode diameter  
23 and particle number concentration were also observed during a following engine

1 acceleration from 1100 rpm (Figure 4, time: 44-57 seconds) for test with Certification  
2 Fuel. When BP-15 was used, the increase in particle number concentration during  
3 acceleration from 1100 rpm was much less pronounced than that during the initial  
4 acceleration from the idle speed, and no increase in Aitken mode diameter was observed.  
5 Figures 4b and 4c show that for the test using Certification Fuel, the increase of particle  
6 number concentration lasted longer, as evidenced by much broader concentration peaks  
7 in the time series. The main differences between the two fuels is the low sulfur content  
8 of BP-15, and the deep hydrotreatment of BP-15 leads to lower aromatics, which are  
9 thought to be soot precursor molecules. BP-15 also has fewer fuel residuals, such as  
10 asphaltenes, which can form condensation nuclei (Rhead and Hardy 2003; Tancell et al.  
11 1995). As the Aitken mode particles are primarily soot, and the ultrafine fraction is  
12 typically condensables such as heavy fuel and/or lubricant molecules (Jung et al. 2003),  
13 we expect a lower particle emission rate when BP-15 is used. The larger Aitken mode  
14 diameter observed during the tests using Certification Fuel may indicate an enhancement  
15 in the rich zone of the flame during these periods, due to the lower cetane number and  
16 slower, or retarded, ignition of the Certification Fuel. The extra time with depleted  
17 oxygen may therefore allow for increased growth on/with soot precursor compounds such  
18 as Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons (PAHs) which are higher in the Certification Fuel.  
19 Additionally, the higher cetane of the BP-15 fuel will generally advance the ignition  
20 timing leading to less particle formation (Heywood, 1988). At a constant engine speed,  
21 an increase in engine torque led to increases in both particle number concentration and  
22 Aitken mode diameter when Certification Fuel was used, whereas the Aitken mode  
23 diameter remained the same for tests using BP-15. Growth of Aitken mode diameter

1 during engine accelerations and increases of engine torque explains the larger mode  
2 diameter of particle size distributions averaged over "acceleration" and "cruise" operation  
3 modes when Certification Fuel was used (Figure 3). Variations of particle size  
4 distributions described above were typical throughout the FTP transient cycle. The  
5 analyses of FTP test results show high emission rates are often associated with heavy  
6 accelerations, and diesel fuel has strong effects on both particle size and concentration of  
7 diesel emissions during transient operations. Furthermore, the fuel effects on emissions  
8 are quite different for different driving characteristics. Note the above results are based  
9 on limited FTP tests using one diesel engine. It will be interesting to see if similar fuel  
10 effects on transient emissions can be observed for diesel engines in other classes. Future  
11 studies will also include the fuel effects on transient emissions under different dilution  
12 ratios and conditions.

13 In addition to particle number concentrations, engine emission rates (particle  
14 number or volume emitted per second) and emission (particle number or volume) per unit  
15 fuel consumed were studied. The emission rate (number or volume) is the product of  
16 particle concentration (number or volume) and exhaust flow rate, which was derived  
17 from the measured intake air flow rate and the engine fuel flow rate. The fuel flow rate  
18 was measured with a Max Machinery fuel flow meter. Figure 6 shows the emission rates  
19 (both number and volume), and emission per unit fuel averaged over the four different  
20 operation modes and three phases of the FTP transient cycle. It is important to note that  
21 the volume emission rates are calculated assuming spherical particles, which is not a  
22 good assumption for particles emitted by diesel engines. As a result, there could be  
23 substantial uncertainties associated with the volume emission rates presented in Figure 6.

Between the two fuels tested, the emission rates (both number and volume based) were consistently higher for Certification Fuel during each operation mode and phase. As a result of both high particle concentration and exhaust flow rate, the emission rates during "acceleration" and "cruise" modes were higher than those during "deceleration" and "idle" modes for both fuels. Figure 6 shows the large differences among emission rates averaged over different phases. LAFY, which has a long period of high speed cruise, had the highest emission rate, while the NYNF had the lowest emission rate due to the long period of engine idling. The differences among different phases were significantly reduced when the emission rate was normalized by the amount of diesel fuel consumed. The variation in number emission per unit diesel consumed was about 40% ( $1.4 \times 10^{12}$ - $1.9 \times 10^{12}$ /gm) and 30% ( $4.3 \times 10^{12}$ - $5.6 \times 10^{12}$ /gm) for BP-15 and Certification Fuel, respectively. For volume emission per unit diesel consumed, the variation was 40% ( $2.0 \times 10^8$ - $2.8 \times 10^8$   $\mu\text{m}^3$ /gm) for BP-15 and 75% ( $1.2 \times 10^9$ - $2.1 \times 10^9$   $\mu\text{m}^3$ /gm) for Certification Fuel.

### **Effect of engine parameter on particle concentration and emission rate**

In this section we present an approach to analyze the effects of individual engine parameter on particle concentration during transient operations, and the approach is applied to the FTP test data described above. To investigate the effect of each engine parameter on the particle number concentration and emission rate, the particle number concentration and number emission rate were fitted to engine parameters through multiple linear regression. Prior to fittings, the particle number concentration and emission rate of each fuel type, and engine parameters were normalized using the following equation:

$$\tilde{X} = \frac{X - \bar{X}}{\sigma_X} \quad (2)$$

where  $\bar{X}$  and  $\sigma_X$  are the mean and standard deviation of the variable  $X$ .  $X$  represents either the particle number concentration or engine parameters. Through linear regression, we hypothesize that the normalized particle number concentration  $\tilde{N}$  can be approximated by a linear function of following normalized engine parameters:

$$\tilde{N} \approx a_0 + a_1 \tilde{v} + a_2 \frac{\widetilde{dv}}{dt} + a_3 \widetilde{Tq} + a_4 \frac{\widetilde{dTq}}{dt} \quad (3)$$

where  $a_i$  ( $i=0-4$ ) are the regression coefficients,  $v$  the engine speed,  $Tq$  the engine torque, and  $\frac{dv}{dt}$  and  $\frac{dTq}{dt}$  the engine acceleration and the change rate of engine torque, respectively. The linear regressions of the particle number concentration were performed on the above four engine parameters with data from "Acceleration", "Deceleration", and "Cruise" operation modes. The resulting regression coefficient of each engine parameter and the correlation of the regression are listed in Table 2. The linear regression was not performed for data during the "Idle" operation mode due to nearly constant engine speed and torque. The selection of the fitting parameters is based on both particle emissions observed during the FTP tests and statistical approaches. In addition to engine speed and torque ( $v$ ,  $Tq$ ), high particle concentrations were observed during heavy accelerations ( $\frac{dv}{dt}$ ) for both fuels tested. Figure 5 shows rapid increases of engine torque ( $\frac{dTq}{dt}$ ) often lead to high particle concentrations when Certification fuel is used. Engine power, one of the obvious choices, is not used in the regression because when engine power is included in addition to the above four engine parameters, linear regressions show no appreciable

difference in the resulting correlation coefficients. Furthermore, when one of the four parameters is replaced by the engine power, linear regressions often result in lower correlations. Therefore, the four parameters are appropriate choices for linear regression analyses, and the high correlation coefficients (as shown later) indicate linear combinations of the four parameters capture most of the variations in transient particle emissions for the diesel engine studied. The effects of individual engine parameter on transient particle emissions may depend on engine technology or architecture. Different sets of engine parameters may be more appropriate for transient emissions of other engines, which will be topics of future studies.

Table 2 shows that linear regressions yielded high correlations during each operation mode, especially for data with BP-15. The high correlations indicate most of the observed variations in particle number concentration  $N$  can be explained by variations of the four engine parameters. It is worth noting for data of different operation modes, the particle number concentration and engine parameters were normalized using the mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) and standard deviation ( $\sigma_X$ ) of the entire FTP transient cycle. Therefore, regression coefficients ( $a_i$ ,  $i=0-4$ ) among different operation modes are directly comparable for each fuel. When BP-15 was used, the regression coefficient of  $\frac{\widetilde{dTq}}{dt}$  was much smaller than coefficients of other engine parameters for each operation mode. The absolute value of the regression coefficient of  $\frac{\widetilde{dTq}}{dt}$  was less than 0.1, suggesting that the particle number concentration was not a strong function of  $\frac{dTq}{dt}$  during tests using BP-15. After  $\frac{\widetilde{dTq}}{dt}$  was removed as a variable, the linear regression of  $\tilde{N}$  was performed on the remaining



1 three engine parameters, and the resulting correlation and regression coefficients were  
 2 nearly identical. The insensitivity of particle number concentration to  $\frac{\widetilde{dTq}}{dt}$  is further  
 3 supported by Figure 7d, which shows little variation in particle number concentrations  
 4 averaged over different  $\frac{dTq}{dt}$  ranges during BP-15 tests. The regression coefficients of  
 5  $\widetilde{v}$ ,  $\widetilde{Tq}$ , and  $\frac{\widetilde{dv}}{dt}$  were all positive, indicating high particle number concentrations were  
 6 mainly associated with heavy acceleration, high engine speed, and torque. The regression  
 7 coefficient of  $\frac{\widetilde{dv}}{dt}$  during "acceleration" mode (0.49) was substantially larger than those  
 8 during "deceleration" (0.13) or "cruise" mode (0.16), which suggests  $\frac{\widetilde{dv}}{dt}$  had a strong  
 9 effect on particle number concentration during heavy acceleration, and less impact on  
 10 particle number concentration during "cruise" and "deceleration" modes.

11 Similar to BP-15, the particle number concentration during tests using  
 12 Certification Fuel increased with increasing  $\frac{dv}{dt}$  and  $Tq$ , as evidenced by the positive  
 13 regression coefficients listed in Table 2 and results shown in Figure 7b and 7c. The  
 14 effects of  $v$  and  $\frac{dTq}{dt}$  on particle number concentration were different for tests using  
 15 Certification Diesel and BP-15. The particle number concentration increased with  
 16 increasing  $\frac{dTq}{dt}$  when Certification Fuel was used. On the other hand, the small  
 17 coefficients derived from the linear regression suggest particle number concentration was  
 18 insensitive to engine speed for Certification Fuel. This conclusion is supported by the

1 result shown in Figure 7a and the fact that the new linear regression yielded similar  
2 correlation and regression coefficients after  $v$  was removed as a fitting variable.  
3 Comparison of coefficients of  $\frac{dv}{dt}$  between the two fuels indicates engine acceleration  
4 has a larger impact on particle number concentration for Certification Fuel than BP-15.

5 Because the overall flux of particles from an engine is more critical to engine  
6 emission control, the correlation and regression coefficients from the linear regression of  
7 number emission rate are listed in table 3. The correlation of the linear regression was  
8 higher than 0.8 except for the "deceleration" mode when Certification Fuel was used.  
9 The engine particle number emission rate is the product of the particle number  
10 concentration and the exhaust flow rate. The correlations between engine exhaust flow  
11 rate and engine speed and torque were 0.70 and 0.69, respectively. As both particle  
12 number concentration and engine exhaust flow rate increased with increasing engine  
13 speed and torque, it is expected that the engine emission rate is a strong function of  
14 engine speed and torque. For tests using BP-15, the regression coefficients derived from  
15 the linear regression indicate the majority of the variation in engine emission rates can be  
16 explained by variations in engine speed and torque, and the engine particle number  
17 emissions were not strong functions of  $\frac{dv}{dt}$  and  $\frac{dTq}{dt}$ . Combining data from the three  
18 operation modes, linear regression of the particle number emission rate on engine speed  
19 and torque yielded a high correlation of 0.87, suggesting the particle number emission  
20 rate can be well explained from engine speed and torque for the BP-15 fuel. While it is  
21 well-known that the number of particles emitted increases with engine speed and load,  
22 the lack of dependence on both  $\frac{dv}{dt}$  and  $\frac{dTq}{dt}$  is surprising, since the assumption has

1 always been that rapid transients are responsible for the majority of particle emissions. In  
2 contrast, for Certification Fuel, the engine speed and torque alone were not sufficient to  
3 explain all the variations in particle emission rate. Among all four engine parameters,  
4 only the effect of  $\frac{dTq}{dt}$  on emission rate was negligible. After removing  $\frac{dTq}{dt}$  as a  
5 variable, linear regression of number emission rate yielded similar correlation and  
6 coefficients for remaining three engine parameters. As the particle number concentration  
7 was insensitive to engine speed during the Certification Fuel test, the strong effect of  
8 engine speed on particle emission rate was a result of strong correlation between exhaust  
9 flow rate and engine speed. The difference in dependence of engine emissions on engine  
10 parameters may be related to the difference between the cetane numbers of the two fuels.  
11 The cetane number of BP-15 is higher than that of Certification fuel. The straight  
12 substitution of BP-15 effectively shortens the ignition delay of the fuel. This property  
13 could lead to less particle formation during periods of high fuel demand such as  
14 acceleration or torque increase, when local concentrations in the cylinder can be fuel-rich.  
15 Once the turbocharger has spooled up to match the new engine speed, or exhaust flow, a  
16 leaner air-fuel ratio is achieved and the particle formation decreases in a corresponding  
17 manner.

18       Whereas based on limited tests, the above analyses indicate for different diesel  
19 fuels, individual engine parameters have different effects on transient particle emission  
20 and its size distribution. In particular, the particle number emission rate is a strong  
21 function of engine acceleration when Certification Fuel is used, but is insensitive to  
22 engine acceleration for tests using BP-15 fuel. The effect of individual engine parameters  
23 may be different for different diesel engines. Since the above results are based on tests

on one engine, future studies will include more tests to verify the above findings, and study the effects of engine parameters on transient emissions for other representative diesel engines.

## **DIESEL ENGINE EMISSION DURING NO<sub>x</sub> ADSORBER ACTIVE REGENERATION**

### ***NO<sub>x</sub> ADSORBER ACTIVE REGENERATION AND EXPERIMENTAL SETUP***

#### **NO<sub>x</sub> adsorber regeneration**

As regulations on diesel engine NO<sub>x</sub> and particulate emissions become more strict, future diesel engines will likely require efficient aftertreatment to meet the new emission regulations. One aftertreatment technology being researched is the NO<sub>x</sub> adsorber or Lean NO<sub>x</sub> Trap, which reduces NO<sub>x</sub> from diesel exhaust. The details of NO<sub>x</sub> adsorber operation were given in West et al (2004). The operation of a NO<sub>x</sub> adsorber proceeds through a series of reaction steps involving oxidation, storage, and reduction functions. In a fuel lean (oxygen-rich) environment, typical of diesel engine exhaust, NO is oxidized by the catalyst to NO<sub>2</sub>, which is further oxidized to nitrate through a surface-catalyzed reaction. The nitrates produced are stored on the catalyst surface; therefore, the nitrate storage sites on the catalyst need to be regenerated periodically in order to adsorb more NO<sub>x</sub>. The "recovery" process is called active regeneration. During active engine-based regeneration, the engine is operated for a short period under fuel rich (oxygen-depleted) conditions, and stored NO<sub>x</sub> is released and reduced to N<sub>2</sub> by the catalyst. The transitions of the engine between the fuel-lean and fuel-rich operation can cause formation of particulate (West et al, 2004; Witze et al,

2004), and such rapid changes in particle emission can be characterized using the fast EEPS.

#### **Experimental setup**

A Mercedes OM668 1.7 liter common-rail diesel engine coupled to a motoring DC dynamometer was used in this study. The engine was a 1999 model used in the Mercedes A170 automobile in Europe. The factory engine control module was replaced with a rapid development engine controller based on a dSpace® MicroAutoBox. This rapid development system (RDS) provides complete control over all engine electronics, including timing, duration, and number of fuel injection events, intake throttle, etc. A full description of the engine and dynamometer research cell, and the two regeneration strategies studied here was given in West et al (2004). For both regeneration strategies, the regeneration window lasts 10 seconds and employs intake throttling to lower exhaust oxygen concentration. Five seconds into the regeneration process, excess fueling was used to transition to fuel-rich operation. The duration of excess fueling was 3 seconds. For the first strategy tested, "Delayed Extended Main" (DEM), the main injection duration was extended for three seconds to achieve fuel-rich conditions, and injection was retarded a few crank angle degrees to reduce the torque increase associated with excess fueling. The second strategy examined here, "Post80", uses a throttle strategy identical to that of the DEM strategy, but excess fuel injection occurs after the main injection, 80 degrees after top dead center (ATDC). The pilot injection, the small pre-injection event used to quiet the diesel "clatter", was disabled during Post80. DEM and Post 80 are two major strategies that are being explored for NO<sub>x</sub> adsorber regenerations.

1 Between the two strategies, the DEM has higher NO<sub>x</sub> adsorber regeneration efficiencies  
2 than Post80 (West et al., 2004).

3 Each of these NO<sub>x</sub> adsorber active regeneration strategies causes a similar, rapid  
4 decrease in air-to-fuel ratio (AFR), but in very different ways. The DEM strategy  
5 consumes excess oxygen in the combustion process; the Post80 strategy consumes  
6 oxygen later in the power stroke. Since the entire active regeneration process last only 10  
7 seconds, the fast changing particle emissions are best characterized using an EEPS, which  
8 is capable of high time resolution measurements. The data on particle emissions during  
9 active regeneration are important for formulating low particle emission regeneration  
10 strategies, as well as designing and simulating diesel particulate filters for the exhaust  
11 system involving the regeneration processes.

12 The setup of the NO<sub>x</sub> regeneration experiment is presented in Figure 8. The  
13 exhaust coming out of the NO<sub>x</sub> adsorber was transported through a 3-meter heated line,  
14 which was maintained at a minimum temperature of 190 °C. The exhaust delivered  
15 through the heated line was fed into two ejector dilutors that were operated in series. The  
16 dilution ratio after the two dilutors was maintained at 650:1. The dilution flow was  
17 passed through filter, trap and active carbon to remove hydrocarbon and particles. The  
18 RH of the dilution flow was below 5%. It is worth pointing out that the light-duty engine  
19 used in the NO<sub>x</sub> adsorber study was not equipped with a Diesel Particulate Filter (DPF).  
20 Vehicle particulate emissions have been declining for many years and upcoming stringent  
21 regulations around the world will almost certainly require vehicles to use a DPF to  
22 remove PM from exhaust. The focus of the study is to characterize the particles  
23 generated with the different NO<sub>x</sub> adsorber regeneration strategies. The size,

concentration, and other characteristics of the particles entering a downstream DPF have important implications for the capacity and performance of the DPF.

#### ***RESULTS AND DISCUSSION (NO<sub>x</sub> ADSORBER ACTIVE REGENERATION)***

For each regeneration strategy, active regenerations were repeated once per minute. Figure 9 gives the variation of particle number concentrations as a function of time during repeated DEM regenerations. The particle number concentrations were calculated by integrating the size distributions measured by EEPS, and were corrected for dilution. The particle number concentration during active regenerations was very reproducible, as evidenced by nearly identical particle number concentrations during different tests. As pointed out earlier, the diesel engine studied here is not equipped with a DPF. As a result, the particle concentrations shown here are much higher than emissions from future realistic diesel vehicles.

Figure 10 presents the air flow, air to fuel flow ratio, and image plots of particle size distributions during the DEM and Post80 regenerations. The minimum air-to-fuel ratio (AFR) for both regenerations was maintained at a fuel-rich 13:1 (The stoichiometric AFR value is 14.7:1). The particle size distributions were averaged over repeated tests. During DEM regenerations, the time series of particle number concentration showed a single peak, while during Post80 regenerations, two concentration peaks and a valley between the peaks were observed. The second-by-second particle size distributions measured by EEPS were fitted into lognormal distributions, and the Aitken mode concentration and diameter are plotted as functions of time in Figure 11. Results from regeneration events under less fuel-rich conditions, AFR= 14:1, are also given. As

1 apparent from Figure 11c and 11d, the effects of the two regeneration strategies on  
2 particle emission were quite different. During DEM regenerations, the diesel particle  
3 number concentration started to increase as the air flow was reduced. The number  
4 concentration reached a maximum of  $4.8\text{e}8/\text{cm}^3$  when air to fuel ratio dropped to the  
5 minimum of 13 during the excess fueling. The particle number concentration then  
6 decreased to the pre-regeneration level as the AFR recovered to normal fuel-lean  
7 conditions. When the minimum AFR was 13:1, the particle number concentration  
8 averaged during the DEM regeneration was  $2.1\text{e}8/\text{cm}^3$ , a factor of 2.9 greater than the  
9 pre-regeneration level ( $5.4\text{e}7/\text{cm}^3$ ). In addition to increases in particle number  
10 concentration, the particle mode diameter during DEM regeneration doubled from 60 nm  
11 to 120 nm. For the Post80 regeneration strategy, we observed quite different effects on  
12 particle emissions. Like DEM, the particle number concentration first increased as the air  
13 flow was reduced. Once the excess fueling started, the particle number concentration  
14 began to decrease, producing the first concentration peak. The particle number  
15 concentration decreased to a minimum of  $3.2\text{e}7/\text{cm}^3$ , which was even *below* the pre-  
16 regeneration level of  $4.5\text{e}7/\text{cm}^3$ , as the AFR was at the minimum of 13:1. The particle  
17 number concentration then increased from the minimum to the second peak as the excess  
18 fueling ended, then decreased to pre-regeneration concentrations as the air flow  
19 recovered. For Post80 regenerations with a minimum air to fuel ratio of 13, the particle  
20 number concentration averaged regenerations only increased slightly from the pre-  
21 regeneration level of  $4.5\text{e}7/\text{cm}^3$  to  $5.0\text{e}7/\text{cm}^3$ . The particle mode diameter remained  
22 relatively constant around 60 nm throughout the Post80 regenerations. Between the two  
23 regeneration strategies, Post80 had a much smaller emission rate than DEM. Averaged



1 over the Post80 regenerations with a minimum AFR of 13, the particle volume  
2 concentration only slightly increased from  $1.9\text{e}4 \mu\text{m}^3/\text{cm}^3$  to  $2.0\text{e}4 \mu\text{m}^3/\text{cm}^3$ . In contrast,  
3 particle volume concentration averaged over DEM regeneration increased by a factor of  
4 16 from pre-regeneration level of  $2.6\text{e}4 \mu\text{m}^3/\text{cm}^3$  to  $4.4\text{e}5 \mu\text{m}^3/\text{cm}^3$ , which was due to a  
5 combination of high particle number concentration and larger particle diameter during the  
6 DEM regenerations. Comparison of the particle number concentrations and mode  
7 diameters at different minimum AFR values (13:1 and 14:1) indicates that AFR had only  
8 a small effect on particle size and concentration for both regeneration strategies. The  
9 higher particle emission during DEM regeneration could be explained by the following:  
10 the additional fuel added during combustion initiated by the pilot fuel injection has the  
11 effect of increasing the rich, soot-producing zones of the flame, leading to increased  
12 particle growth as well as concentration. Witze et al (2005) speculate that the *decrease* in  
13 particle number emissions during Post80 may be caused by the lack of pilot fuel  
14 injection. Because there is no existing flame as the main fuel injection proceeds, there is  
15 no addition of fuel to a rich, sooting zone. The rapid increase in particle emissions at the  
16 end of Post80 may be due to the excess fuel interfering with the normal oxidation  
17 processes of the soot, or combustion of the excess fuel.

18 The emissions control engineering and environmental implications of this  
19 research are important. In 2009 (light-duty vehicles) and 2010 (heavy-duty vehicles),  
20 additional restrictions on mobile source emissions will take full effect. These new  
21 regulations will likely necessitate NO<sub>x</sub> adsorber catalysts or some other form of catalytic  
22 NO<sub>x</sub> emissions control. The EEPS, and the data analysis presented in this study, can be  
23 invaluable for developing regeneration strategies that minimize excessive particle

1 formation and work in concert with diesel particulate filters (DPFs) for overall emissions  
2 reduction. Furthermore, by incorporating size-resolved PM emissions as a function of  
3 engine and emissions control operation, it may be possible to improve the ability of  
4 mobile source emissions models to predict impacts of diesel particle emissions on  
5 ambient PM<sub>2.5</sub>.

## 7 **CONCLUSIONS**

8       The diesel engine emissions during transient operations were studied using the  
9 newly developed EEPS. Particles emitted by a 1999 model year, medium-duty diesel  
10 engine during engine FTP transient cycles were characterized for different diesel fuels:  
11 Certification Fuel and BP-15. For both fuels tested, high particle number concentration  
12 and emission rates were associated with heavy acceleration, high speed, and high torque.  
13 Averaged over the FTP transient cycle, the particle number concentration during a test  
14 using Certification Fuel was  $1.2 \times 10^8/\text{cm}^3$ , about four times the particle number  
15 concentration during BP-15 tests. For both fuels, the particle size distributions observed  
16 during the FTP transient cycles consisted of two modes: one ultrafine mode with modal  
17 diameter around 10 nm and an Aitken mode with modal diameter ranging from 50 nm to  
18 80 nm. When Certification Fuel was used, both the particle number concentration and  
19 the Aitken mode diameter increased during engine accelerations and increases in engine  
20 torque. In contrast, for BP-15, only a moderate increase in Aitken mode diameter was  
21 observed when the engine accelerated from the idle speed (850 rpm). Engine  
22 acceleration from higher engine speeds and increases of torque resulted in higher particle  
23 number concentrations whereas the Aitken mode diameter remained unchanged for BP-

15. The particle number emission per unit diesel fuel was relatively constant among the three phases of the FTP transient cycle. The variations in number emission per unit diesel consumed were about 40% ( $1.4\text{e}12\text{-}1.9\text{e}12/\text{gm}$ ) and 30% ( $4.3\text{e}12\text{-}5.6\text{e}12/\text{gm}$ ) when BP-15 and Certification Fuel were tested, respectively. The effect of each engine parameter on particle emission was studied through linear regression of particle number concentration and number emission rate on four engine parameters. For BP-15, it was found the particle number emission rate can be well predicted from engine speed and torque. When Certification Fuel was used, the engine acceleration ( $\frac{dv}{dt}$ ) strongly affected the particle number emission rate in addition to the engine speed and torque. It is important to note that the above interesting findings are based on limited tests on one engine. Future studies will include additional tests to verify these results, and study the effects of diesel fuel and engine parameters on transient particle emissions for other representative diesel engines. Nonetheless, the research described here has broad implications for both engine and emissions control development as well as mobile source effects on air quality. As more strict emissions regulations take effect, sources and characteristics of ambient fine particulate matter, particularly on urban roadways, will be changing. The combination of the EEPS and data analysis techniques demonstrated here may greatly increase the effectiveness of emissions control strategies. The unprecedented ability to measure particle size distributions during transient operations, as well as the development of data models for a given engine and fuel combination, promises to assist in calibration of strategies for both engine operation and emissions control. Mobile source models, which characterize emissions as a function of vehicle operation, traffic,

1 and road conditions, could potentially utilize the data analysis methods described here to  
2 improve their treatment of particle emissions.

3 The particle size distributions during active regenerations of a diesel NOx  
4 adsorber catalyst were also characterized using the EEPS. Two regeneration strategies,  
5 Delayed Extended Main (DEM) and Post80, were studied. During the DEM  
6 regenerations, substantial increases in particle number concentration and particle mode  
7 diameter were observed. As a result, for DEM regenerations with a minimum air to fuel  
8 flow ratio of 13:1, the particle volume concentration averaged over the regenerations  
9 reached  $4.4\text{e}5 \mu\text{m}^3/\text{cm}^3$ , a factor of 16 of the pre-regeneration level of  $2.6\text{e}4 \mu\text{m}^3/\text{cm}^3$ .  
10 For the Post80 regenerations, intake throttle (reducing the air flow) and increasing the  
11 fuel injection had opposite effects on particle number concentrations, which resulted in  
12 two peaks in the time series of particle number concentration during regenerations. Little  
13 variation in particle mode diameter was observed during Post80 regenerations. During  
14 Post80 regenerations with a minimum AFR of 13:1, the average particle volume  
15 concentration only increased slightly from the pre-regeneration level of  $1.9\text{e}4 \mu\text{m}^3/\text{cm}^3$  to  
16  $2.0\text{e}4 \mu\text{m}^3/\text{cm}^3$ . It was also found that the minimum AFR reached during regenerations  
17 had little effect on particle number concentration and mode diameter for both  
18 regeneration strategies. Between the two regeneration strategies studied here, Post80 had  
19 much lower particle emission rates than DEM regenerations.

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Table 1: Mode diameter, concentration, and dispersion of particle size distributions averaged over each engine operation mode. Size distributions were fitted to a two-mode lognormal distribution.

Fitted parameter		BP -15				Certification Fuel			
		Accele.	Decele.	Cruise	Idle	Accele.	Decele.	Cruise	Idle
Ultrafine	$N_1$ ( $\text{cm}^{-3}$ )	6.6E+06	3.2E+06	7.6E+06	8.5E+06	4.4E+07	1.5E+07	2.5E+07	6.9E+07
	$D_{p,1}$ (nm)	11.0	10.7	18.3	8.5	4.9	6.2	3.8	7.1
	$\sigma_1$	2.3	2.2	1.9	1.7	1.8	1.9	3.8	1.6
Aitken	$N_2$ ( $\text{cm}^{-3}$ )	4.0E+07	1.1E+07	3.7E+07	2.8E+06	2.9E+08	5.2E+07	1.5E+08	2.5E+06
	$D_{p,2}$ (nm)	56	49	50	50	78	76	60	52
	$\sigma_2$	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.6	2.2

Table 2. Correlations and regression coefficients derived through linear regression of particle number concentration to engine parameters. Results are given for each operation mode for tests with both fuels. The linear regression of particle number concentrations from BP-15 test was also performed on  $v$ ,  $dv/dt$ , and  $Tq$ , and the results are given in parenthesis. For tests using Certification Fuel, numbers in parenthesis are results of linear regression of particle number concentration on  $dv/dt$ ,  $Tq$ , and  $dTq/dt$  only.

N fitting results	BP-15			Certification Fuel		
	Acceleration	Deceleration	Cruise	Acceleration	Deceleration	Cruise
R	0.81, (0.81)	0.86, (0.86)	0.86, (0.85)	0.78, (0.78)	0.71, (0.71)	0.82, (0.81)
a0	-0.31, (-0.31)	-0.39, (-0.40)	-0.85, (-0.85)	0.09, (0.07)	-0.07, (-0.06)	0.10, (-0.01)
a1 (v)	0.42, (0.42)	0.61, (0.61)	1.04, (1.04)	-0.18, (N/A)	0.07, (N/A)	-0.10, (N/A)
a2 (dv/dt)	0.48, (0.49)	0.14, (0.13)	0.18, (0.16)	0.72, (0.71)	0.26, (0.26)	0.30, (0.30)
a3 (Tq)	0.52, (0.53)	0.49, (0.49)	0.70, (0.70)	0.72, (0.68)	0.57, (0.57)	0.48, (0.48)
a4 (dTq/dt)	0.04, (N/A)	-0.01, (N/A)	-0.08, (N/A)	0.40, (0.39)	0.14, (0.14)	0.33, (0.33)

Table 3. Correlations and regression coefficients derived through linear regressions of number emission rate to engine parameters. Results are given for each operation mode for tests with both fuels. The linear regression of particle number concentrations from BP-15 test was also performed on  $v$  and  $Tq$ , and the results are given in parenthesis. For tests using Certification Fuel, numbers in parenthesis are results of linear regression of number emission rate to  $v$ ,  $dv/dt$ , and  $Tq$ .

Emission Rate fitting Results	BP-15				Certification Fuel		
	Acceleration	Deceleration	Cruise	all	Acceleration	Deceleration	Cruise
R	0.83, (0.81)	0.88, (0.87)	0.93, (0.91)	0.87	0.86, (0.84)	0.78, (0.77)	0.87, (0.86)
a0	-0.29, (-0.09)	-0.31, (-0.42)	-1.06, (-1.05)	-0.43	-0.09, (-0.10)	-0.11, (-0.11)	-0.49, (-0.50)
a1 ( $v$ )	0.84, (0.84)	0.65, (0.66)	1.31, (1.30)	0.80	0.61, (0.61)	0.34, (0.34)	0.62, (0.63)
a2 ( $dv/dt$ )	0.18, (N/A)	0.10, (N/A)	0.20, (N/A)	N/A	0.37, (0.41)	0.24, (0.25)	0.34, (0.38)
a3 ( $Tq$ )	0.37, (0.33)	0.45, (0.42)	0.78, (0.78)	0.65	0.62, (0.63)	0.52, (0.52)	0.76, (0.77)
a4 ( $dTq/dt$ )	-0.04, (N/A)	-0.05, (N/A)	-0.15, (N/A)	N/A	0.17, (N/A)	0.06, (N/A)	0.16, (N/A)

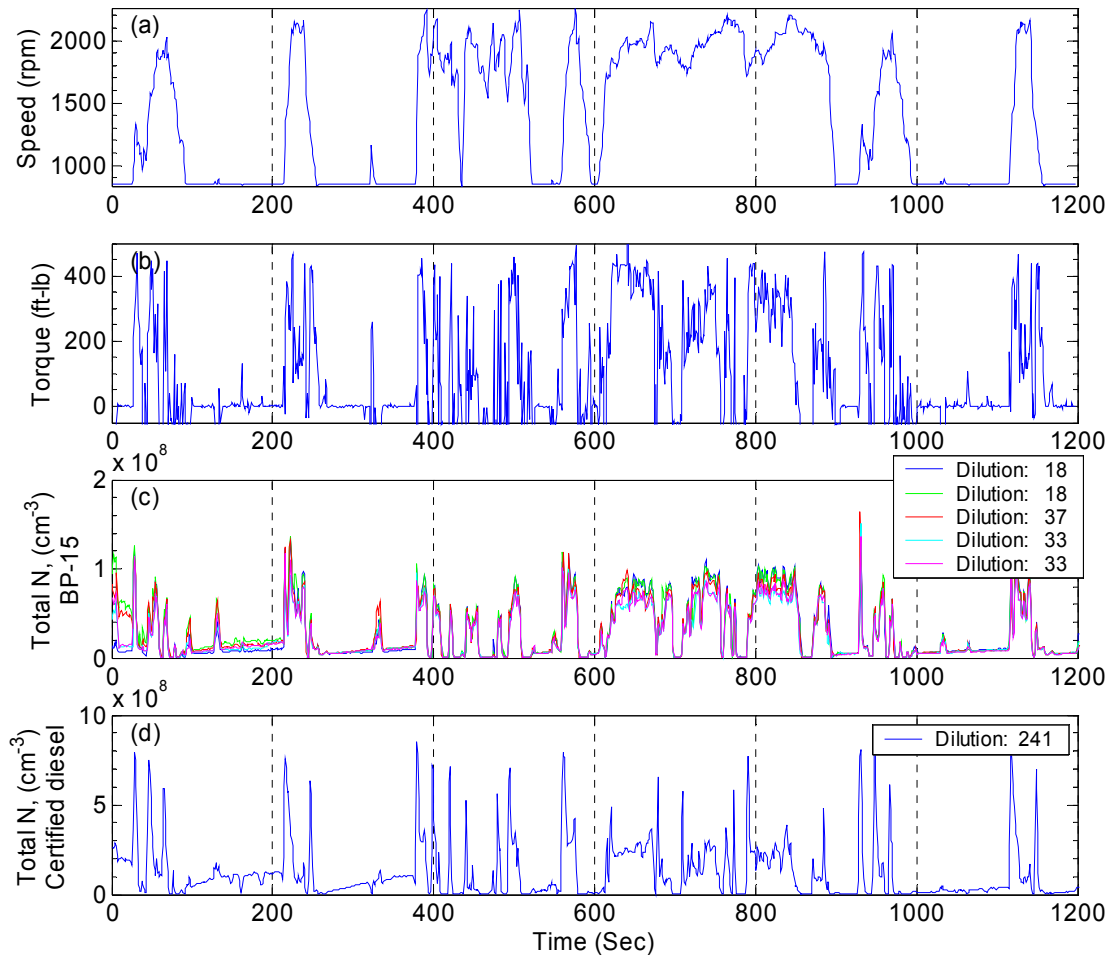


Figure 1: Time series of engine parameters and particle number concentrations during FTP transient test cycles. (a) Engine speed. (b) Engine torque. (c) Total particle number concentration during tests using BP-15. (d) Total particle number concentration during tests using Certification Fuel.

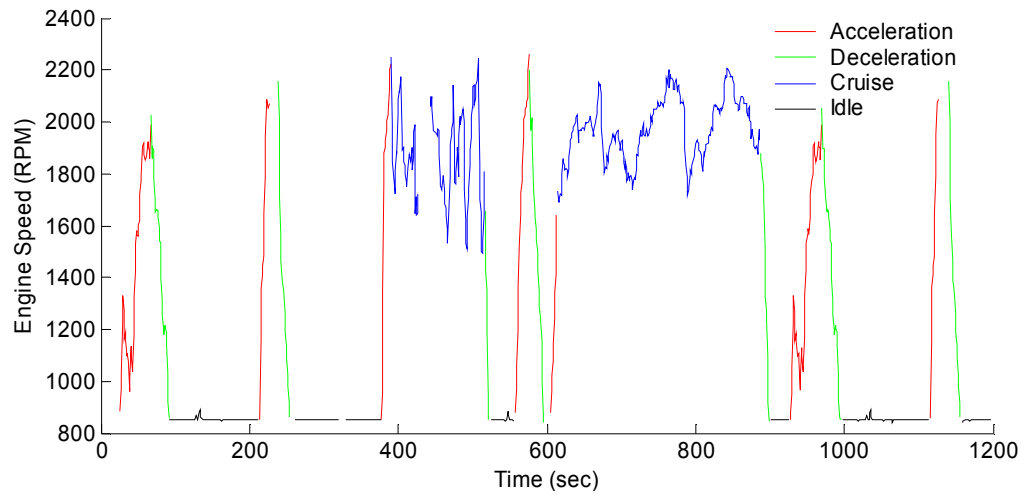


Figure 2: Different engine operation modes during the FTP transient test cycle.

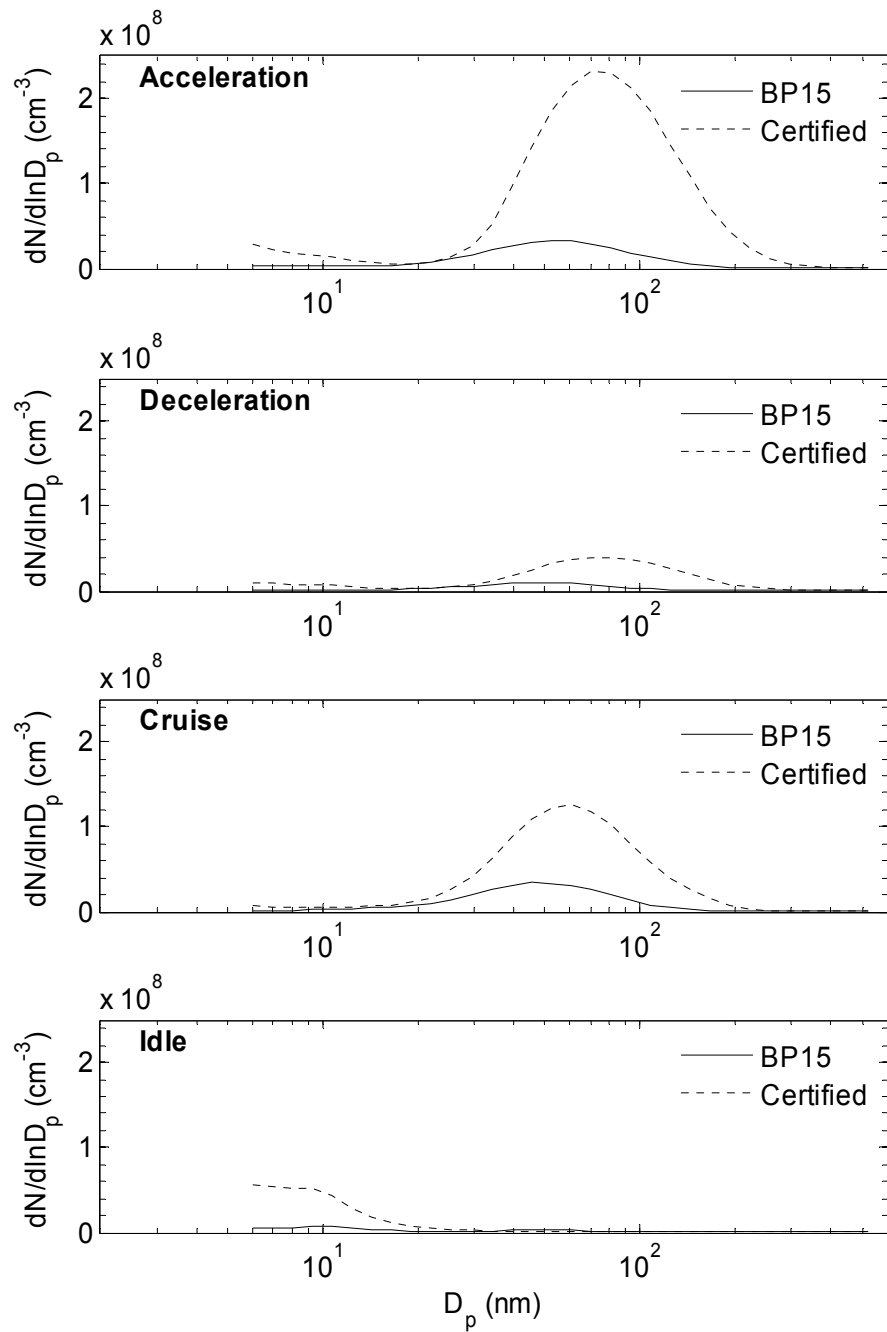


Figure 3: Particle number size distributions averaged over individual operation modes for tests using BP-15 and Certification Fuel.



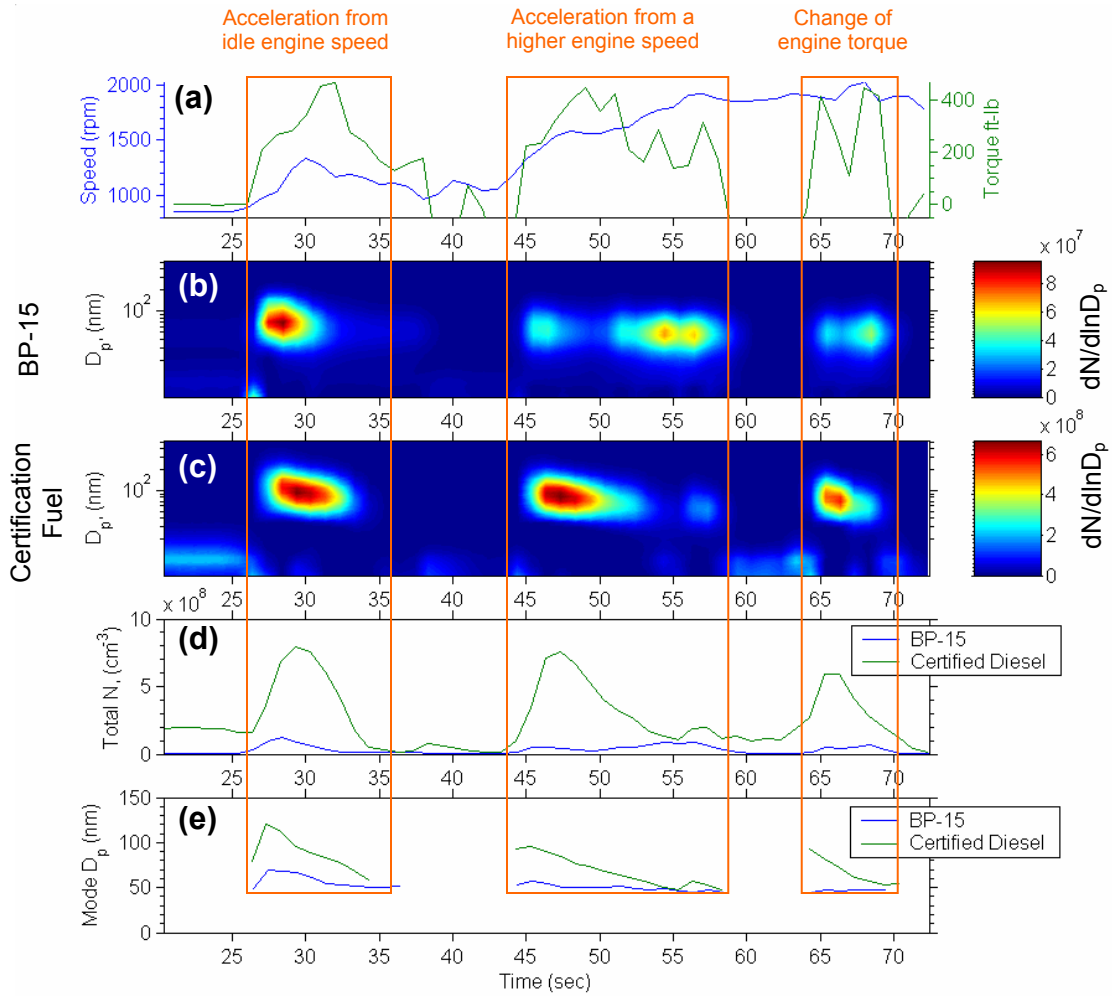


Figure 4. Time series of engine parameters and particle emission measurements during a typical acceleration period. (a) Engine speed and torque. (b) Particle number size distribution during a test with BP-15. (c) Particle size distribution during a test with Certification Fuel. (d) Total particle number concentrations during tests using BP-15 and Certification Fuel; (d) Aitken mode diameters of particle size distributions.

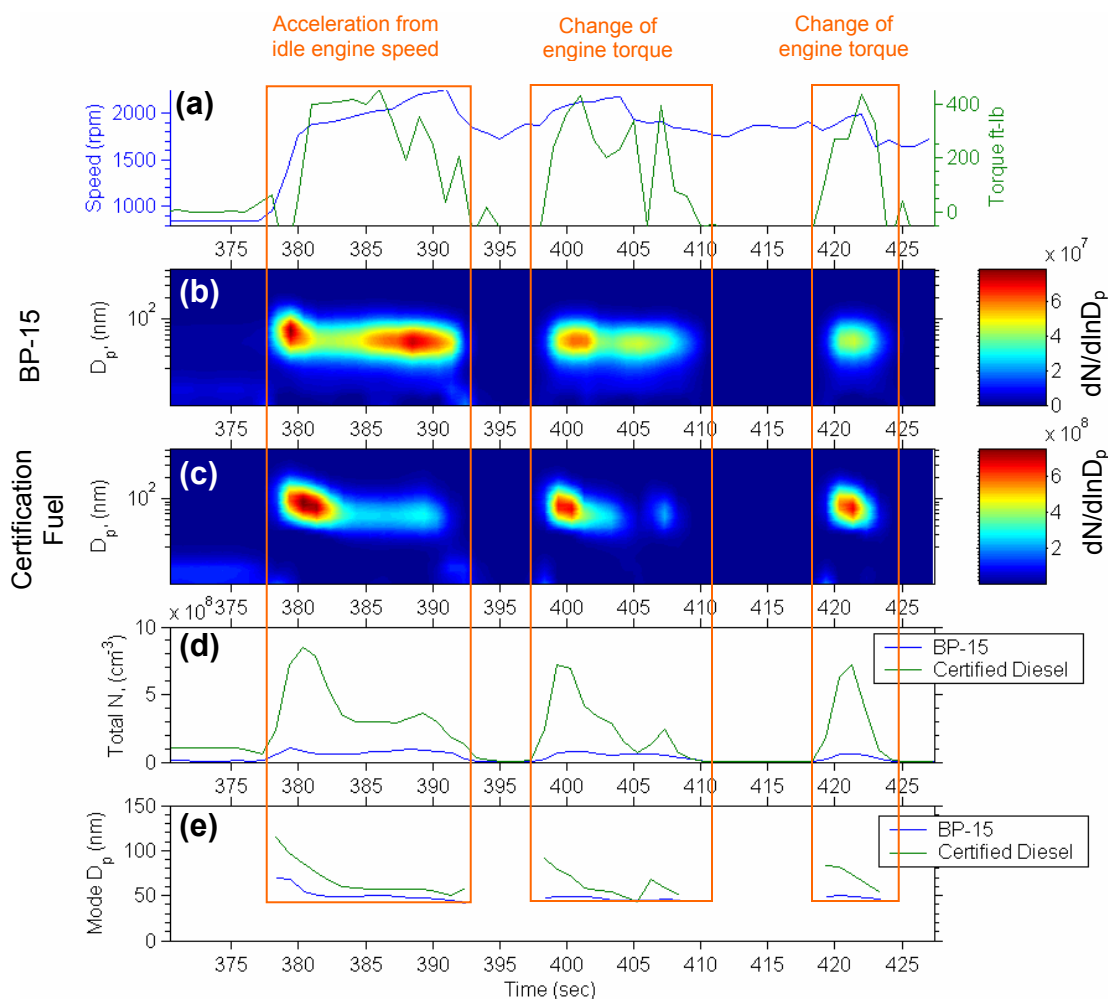


Figure 5. Time series of engine parameters and particle emission data during a typical "cruise" period following acceleration from idling. (a) Engine speed and torque. (b) Particle number size distribution during a test with BP-15. (c) Particle number size distribution during a test with Certification Fuel. (d) Total particle number concentrations during tests using BP-15 and Certification Fuel; (d) Aitken mode diameters of particle size distributions.

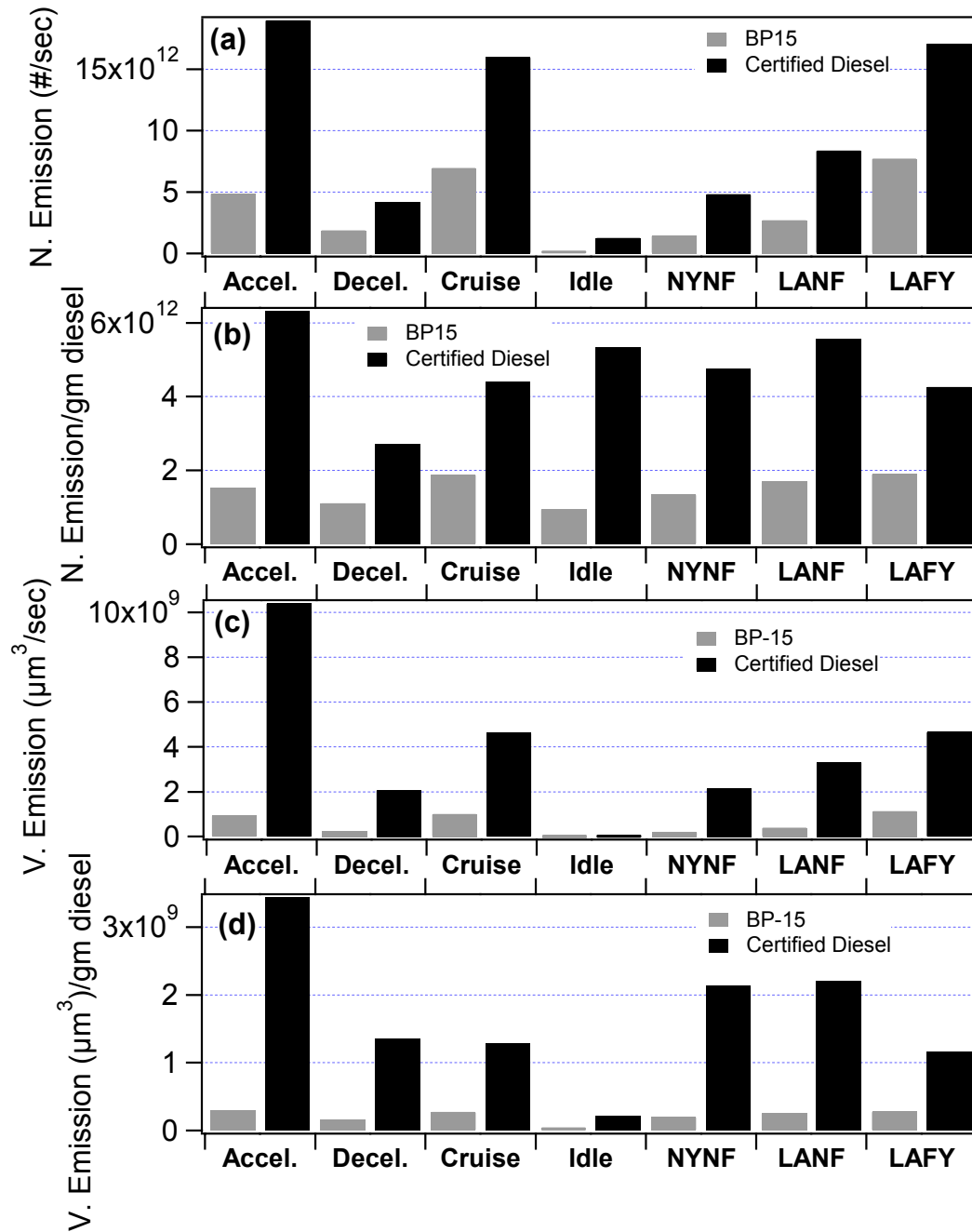


Figure 6: Emission rates averaged over each operation mode and phase of the FTP transient test cycle. (a) Number emission rate (#/sec). (b) Volume emission rate ( $\mu\text{m}^3/\text{sec}$ ). (c) Number emission per unit diesel fuel consumed (#/g); (d) Volume emission per unit fuel consumed ( $\mu\text{m}^3/\text{g}$ )

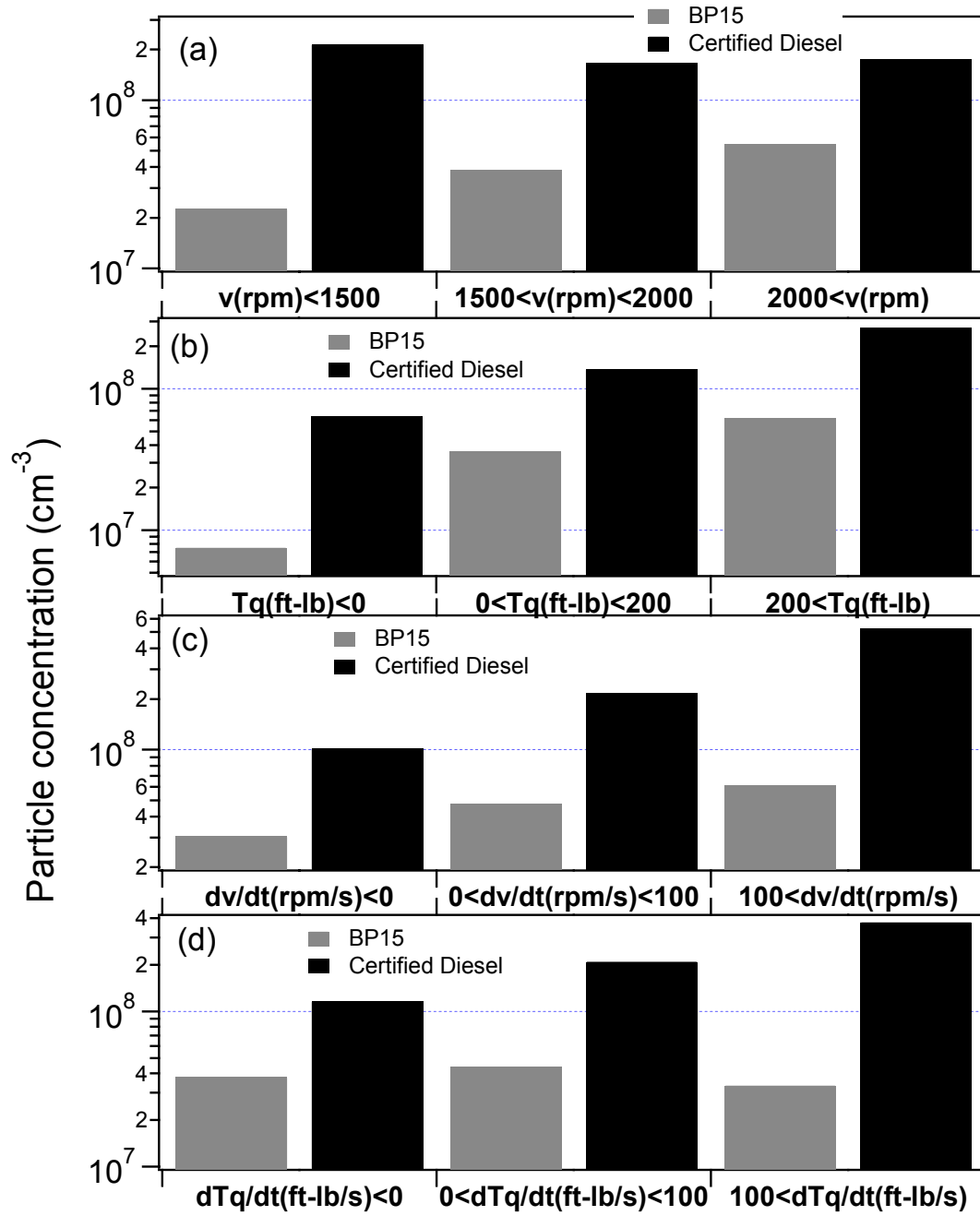


Figure 7: Particle number concentrations averaged over different ranges of (a) engine speed, (b) engine torque, (c) acceleration  $dv/dt$ , and (d) change rate of engine torque  $dT_q/dt$ .

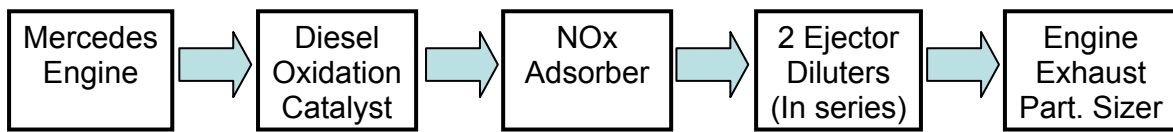


Figure 8. Schematic of the experiment setup for particle sampling during active regenerations of a NOx adsorber.

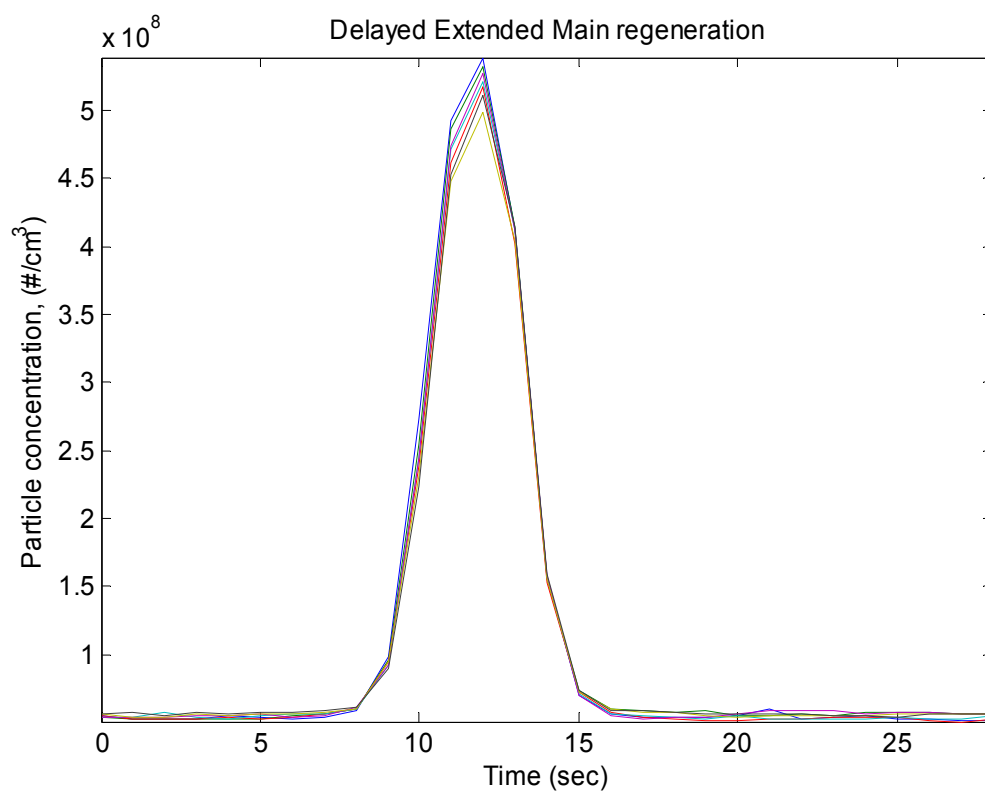


Figure 9. Test to test variability of the transient particle number concentration during Delayed Extended Main regeneration. Particle number concentrations were integrated over the size range of particle size distributions measured by the EEPS.

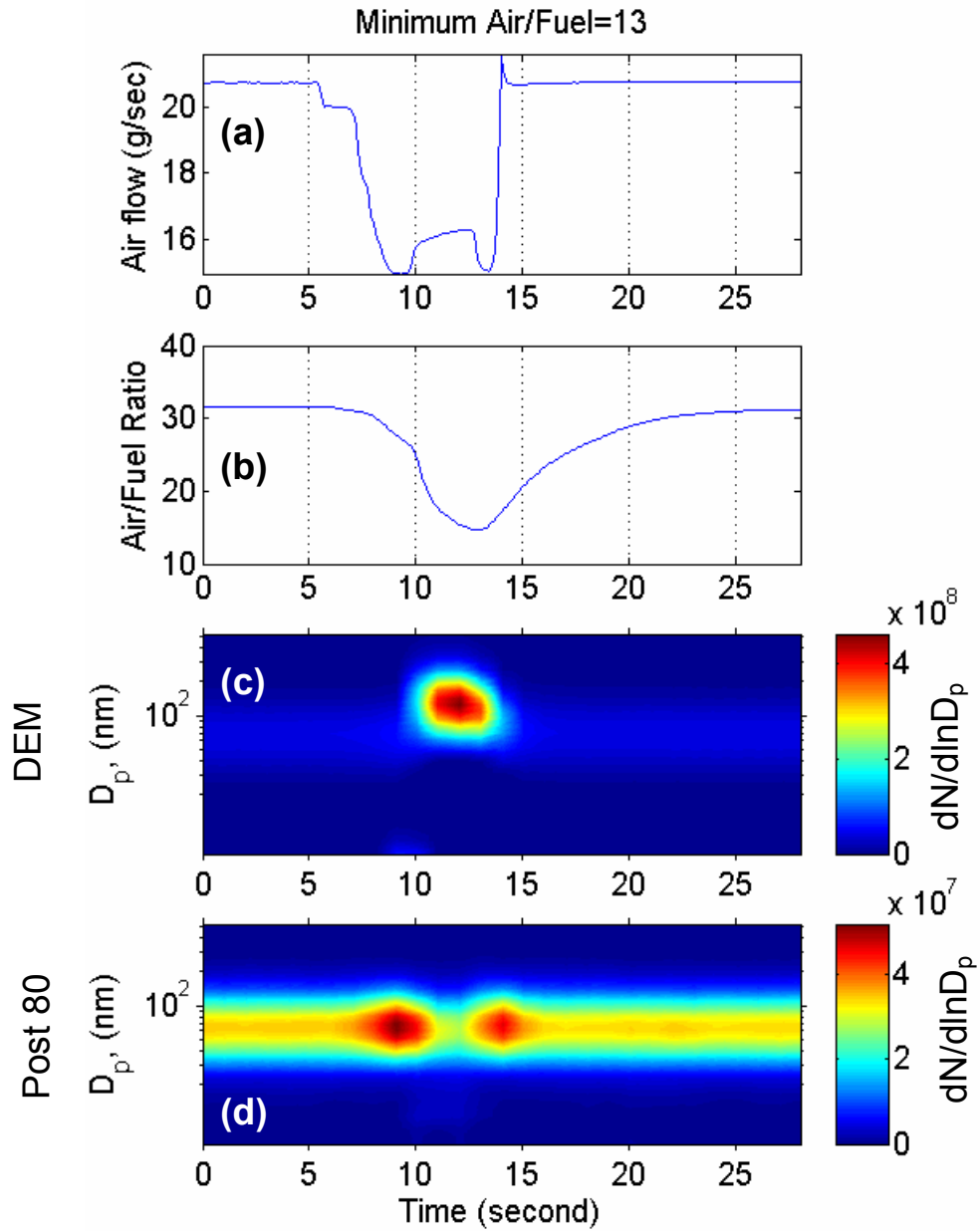


Figure 10. Time series of engine control parameters and particle size distributions during NOx adsorber active regenerations. (a) Engine air flow rate. (b) Air to fuel flow ratio. (c) Particle number size distribution during a DEM regeneration. (d) Particle number size distribution during a Post80 regeneration. The minimum air to fuel flow ratio was 13 during the regenerations.

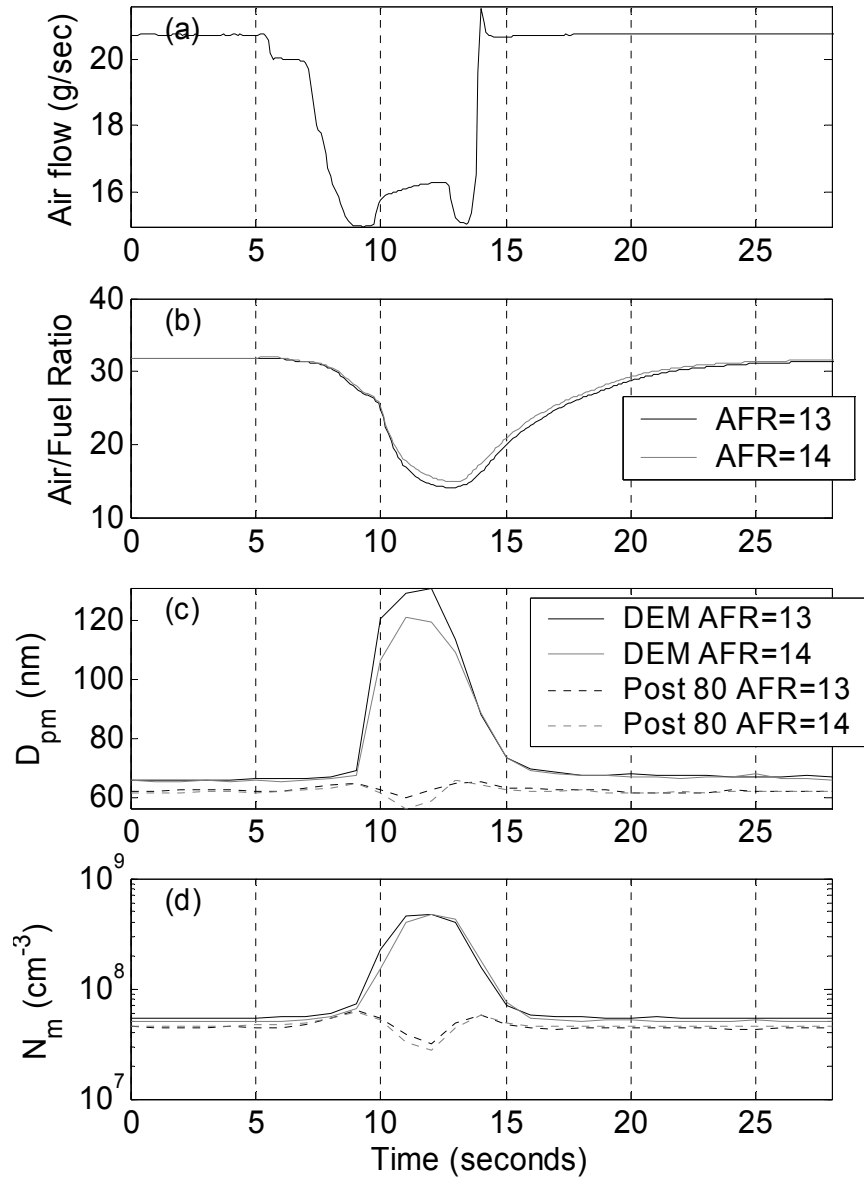


Figure 11. Time series of (a) engine air flow rate, (b) air to fuel flow ratio, (c) fitted mode diameters, and (d) fitted mode concentrations of particle size distributions measured during active regeneration experiments.